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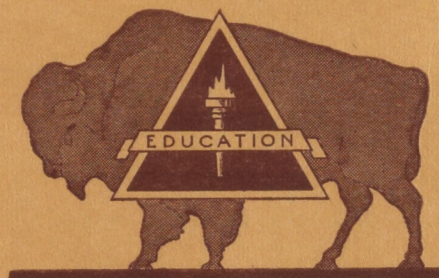


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BULLETIN No. 14

December, 1950



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## FACULTY OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN No. 14, DECEMBER, 1950

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# *A Message from the Minister*

HONOURABLE W. C. MILLER

YOUR Dean, Dr. D. S. Woods, has kindly invited me to write a foreword to this annual bulletin of your Faculty. I am very glad to have this opportunity of expressing to you, on behalf of the whole Department, our very real interest in the graduate-students who are now undergoing professional training in Education.

All who are concerned with administration in this field realize fully that your influence in the years to come will extend far beyond your classroom walls. You are entering a profession that is primarily concerned with the quickening of intelligence and the fortifying of character. Your immediate practice will necessarily concern itself with the arts by which man has furthered and expressed that intelligence, and with the acts of will by which he has developed his powers and achieved self-reliance. But the effects of your daily tasks will not stop there.

For the work of the teacher goes far beyond the mere training of boys and girls to perform efficiently the tasks that will confront them in their adult life — still further beyond the imparting of the knowledge required to pass written examinations, however large those aspects of your work may loom in your own eyes or in the minds of your students. The real work of the teacher transcends that of mere training or instruction — it is essentially concerned with the liberation of the human spirit, which is a much greater thing.

The amazing triumphs of the human mind during the past hundred years, whether in the fields of science and economics or those of social organization and welfare, have not been achieved in our schools. They have been achieved by men and women whose minds and spirit had been liberated by the work of those schools. It is well that you who are now entering in that work should bear that constantly in mind — it may help you to appreciate more fully the importance and the dignity of your chosen profession.

# Message From Dr. J. B. Rollitt

*Assistant to the President*

THE mid-century must be a time of stock-taking, of retrospect, as we examine our achievements, and of prophecy as we look forward to new goals. In this half century we have achieved general literacy and have made very substantial progress towards the time when aptitude and ability, rather than the financial status of their parents, shall determine the extent of the formal education that young Canadians are able to enjoy.

These are mighty achievements, yet, as we have made them, I think that we ourselves have lost certain values that were implicit in the older approach to our profession, and have left our attitude towards others unresolved. Some of us, I am afraid, have tended to become expert in pedagogical method, while others have ignored method in their concentration on highly specialized areas of knowledge. Only the exceptions among us seem to have retained the sum of qualities that made the gifted teacher in the days when education was the privilege of the preferred few.

I suggest that, in the next fifty years—perhaps it would be better to say forty years, since that represents the

working life of those who are joining the profession now, and contains the remaining span of those of us who are already in it—we must overcome the problems imposed on us by mass, of mass still lacking the perception and proportion of an intellectual environment until we provide it; that to do this, we must regain, in practice, the concept which extends the teacher's function beyond subject matter and its presentation into the realms of personal conduct, ethics, good manners and well rounded character.

I do not think that this is entirely a matter of reducing the numbers whom we are required to teach, or the diversity of subjects and levels for which so many of us find ourselves simultaneously responsible; nor do I think that there are any of us who are not aware of the wider conception of the teacher's mission and seeking to fulfill it. We will only, however, achieve the promise of general literacy and the educational structure that is ours, as we realize for the mass the definition of the educated man that Bacon gave us in the days before it was discovered that there could be educated women, too.

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# The University Goes To The Country

DR. ELEANOR BOYCE

THE University of Manitoba has really gone to the country. That statement does not refer to the removal of the Junior Division from the Broadway site to the Fort Garry Campus. It refers to the courses being offered by the Faculty of Education of the University of Manitoba for the second consecutive year at Dauphin. Increased enrolment, moreover, augurs well for the continuance of the classes. They may have been started as an experiment, but in all probability they will continue as a permanent service to many who would otherwise be denied the opportunity to attend University classes.

Although the courses are primarily designed for the professional improvement of teachers and supervisors, the library-conscious citizens of Dauphin have expressed the desire to enroll in future classes suited to their particular interests.

In former years most of those admitted to the Faculty courses in education were graduates. The courses were always given on the University campus. Now, however, as the popularity of degrees in education is spreading, more and more teachers holding First Class Certificates are becoming interested in the Bachelor of Paedagogy degree. Fewer than fifty per cent. of those enrolled at Dauphin are graduates and the University is going out to help them. They will complete the academic studies at summer school.

Lecturing four hours every Saturday is a heavy assignment but it is also an exciting experience in Dauphin. Think of facing forty-four candidates whose enthusiasm for improving their efficiency in the classroom, as well as their academic and professional standing, impels them to walk, drive, hitch-hike, travel by bus or train every Saturday for twelve consecutive weeks. Towns

such as Kelwood, Grand View, Ethelbert, Ste. Rose du Lac, Valley River, Gilbert Plains, Makinak, Sifton and Ochre River may boast that their teachers are sufficiently interested in their work to undertake in-service training that entails no small sacrifice. These people are travelling anywhere from eight to to one hundred and thirty miles each Saturday in order to attend classes. If any lecturer should require added inspiration, all she would need to consider is the number of teachers from one-room rural schools who are taking advantage of the University's move to the country,—the number and the fantastic distances they travel to attend the lectures. One such teacher journeys ninety miles every Saturday, another fifty. Several come thirty miles. The fact that they are eager is further attested by the attendance record: ninety-five per cent. for the course in Dauphin. When such facts fail to inspire a lecturer, rigor mortis has set in.

Not only did the University respond to the request for "country" courses carrying credits, but the Department of Education welcomed the opportunity given teachers to improve their standing. The Area Board, too, concurred in the experiment. The University and the Department grant full professional standing for successfully completed courses. The Area Board is not to be outdone in giving leadership. It recognizes the courses by giving credit in salary increments to teachers completing a course. The University, the Department of Education and the Area Board are to be congratulated on their progressive policies in this instance.

As for the lecturer, after spending twenty-two nights on a train in less than three months, she is making enquiries as to whether the University offers an honours course in sleeping.



# SUMMER SESSION CLASS, 1950

## Editorial

THE CLASS, SUMMER SESSION, 1950

ROBERT M. CROSS

ELSEWHERE in this Bulletin will be found the names of some eighty-seven graduates — teachers from the secondary schools of Manitoba. All these teachers were on the proverbial "two month's holidays (with pay)" yet they chose to spend those holidays — a sort of postman's holiday — at the Faculty of Education Summer School. The question in our minds, though we were one of them and had our own reasons, was "why do they do it?" Why spend holiday time on courses or why take courses at all? A recent issue of "Time" magazine reports on this question among some of the American Universities. Graduate students were asked frankly why they were graduate students. The answers — seventy per cent of all those candidates for the Masters Degree and sixty per cent of all the candidates for the Doctor's Degree said they expected to get better positions. We presume that a better job meant higher pay — that the extra years spent in study would pay off in a short time. "Time" goes on to comment on the lack of "the thirst for knowledge" and the materialism in higher education.

It would be interesting to have a similar frank investigation conducted in our own University. We can only speculate as to what might be the result, but let us narrow our speculation down to the Faculty of Education and still more, to those attending the Summer Sessions. Let us see for argument's sake if additional degrees can really be made to pay for themselves.

In the first place the number of better jobs, superintendents and inspectors, is very limited. There would scarcely be one of these "plums" for the eighty-seven students of summer school even if the present holders were all retired or resigned in a body. A further investigation of salary comparisons might show that the differen-

tial would not justify any extended investment in Degrees.

In the second place we note that provision is made in some salary schedules in the Province for additional degrees. The additional increment at the present time is too small to justify the amount of time involved, as a matter of fact it does not begin to compare with automatic increases made during the years that a teacher is acquiring experience. Apparently Manitoba considers years of teaching experience more important than degrees acquired. In any case the increase in pay over an extended period of time would not reimburse the holder of a higher degree for his outlay in fees, living expenses or time which he might use for other employment.

We think these two facts in themselves support our contentions that teachers, by and large, cannot make money by acquiring degrees.

What then is the answer to our question, "Why do they do it?" The teacher as a dispenser of knowledge or a trainer of thinkers must be able to hold up his head with the best of the professional men and women in his district. He can no longer satisfy parents with the reason for a pupil's failure that he is lazy or lacks ability. He must be satisfied in his own mind and know the reasons or at least make an attempt to remedy the situation. In short he must be as modern in his ideas as the doctor or the scientists and yet as cognizant of the past as the churchman or historian. He can no longer bask in the sun of noble ideals. He must know his work for the complicated job it is and feel that he is tackling it with all the skill of an expert. He cannot afford to be an amateur and neither can the country afford to employ amateurs. True the permit teacher is still with us, but his number is decreasing and we hope will ultimately vanish. Even he is not turned

loose in a class-room without some rudimentary preparatory training. We have as a body advanced so far when we can compare permittees with the situation in former times when the fledgling lawyer "taught school" a few years to make enough to go back to University.

Teachers themselves realize that a year of training in the Diploma Course is not enough, that gaining experience is a slow process and that a truly professional attitude is acquired only when one combines personal experience with the experience of those who thought deeply and experimented carefully in the field of Education. The enrollment in the summer school easily bears this out, 1947—forty-two, 1949—eighty, 1950—eight-seven. Add to the latter two years the enrollment in Winter Courses in Winnipeg and more recently the winter courses in Dauphin and Brandon and we have a goodly number of teachers advancing their professional standing. Do they as individuals make

it pay them? That would be asking the impossible. But there is no doubt that the benefits will accrue to the children of Manitoba and that must be the answer to our question.

Dean Woods perhaps more than any one man is responsible for the improvement in the professional standing of the Teachers of Manitoba. When he wrested Education from the Faculty of Arts and Science, he immediately raised teaching to a profession. His ability as an organizer and teacher increased the importance of the Bachelor and Masters' Degree in Education and the holders could well feel that they had improved themselves in their chosen field. Students of Dean Woods who have seen him build up the Faculty often wonder at how timeless is his enthusiasm. He has made a lasting impression on the teachers of the province which through them and their students has had a very profound influence on Education in Manitoba.

## Message From the President

JOHN N. CLARK, B.A., M.Ed.

I WOULD like to extend greetings and best wishes to all those students who attended the education classes of the past summer school session. On behalf of the student association I would like to express our thanks to the members of the Faculty Staff, Dean Woods, Prof. J. Katz and Prof. Richard and to the visiting instructor Dr. Robinson of Kelvin High School, for their patience in bearing with us. To the Librarian, Miss Heaney, and her assistant, much credit also is due for their co-operation in assisting us in many ways. Finally, I would like to thank the members of the Student Council for their co-operation and for their work in planning the various activities of the summer. Each member worked unstintingly toward making the summer session pleasant.

The activities of the 1950 session were in many ways similar to those of

previous years but there were some innovations. The "work-picnic" that was held during the summer was thoroughly enjoyed by all and showed that the feeling of good will and friendship among students and teachers alike was of the highest quality. Another highlight of the summer was the banquet and we were pleased to welcome Mr. Thompson, Assistant Superintendent of Winnipeg Schools, and to hear his first Winnipeg address since his appointment to his present post.

In the Oct. 16 edition of Time an article deals at some length with the findings of a parent who uses the pseudonym John William Sperry and who made a two year study of teachers' colleges and normal schools. At one summer "workshop", he watched 200 teachers spend hours going over a list of 100 phrases and rating the ideas as "quite important," "of average im-

portance" or "not important." At another summer conference, he saw "some 400 poor, tired, middle-aged teachers solemnly conduct a discussion of 'desirable characteristics for a teacher.' In the evening at a banquet the toast master urged all to repeat in unison, "Conference," "Rich Experience" and other slogans, designed to pep up the flagging spirits of the teachers. The writer concludes by stating, "as things stand now, the teachers being trained to instruct your children and mine are getting the worst college education of all."

I have mentioned this article in order that the contrast may be shown with what is happening in our own Faculty of Education. I have attended Faculty of Education for the last five summers out of six and the Faculty of Arts for eight summers previously and feel that possibly I can write with some authority on this point. The quality of instruction in the Faculty of Education is second to none on the campus and the students who leave the Diploma

Course as well as Summer School Graduates seem alert to educational progress. Nor have I encountered at any of the summer school sessions "tired, middle-aged teachers solemnly conducting discussions" on irrelevant or thread-bare topics. Those of us who may be a little older than many of the summer students still have plenty of kick in us. For alertness, attitude toward work, and friendly spirit the summer of 1950 seemed to be one of the best. The faculty to which we belong is on the move under the able leadership of Dean Woods and his staff and continues to accomplish much toward raising the status of education in this province. Would it not be in order for some one to write a term paper with some such title as "A Brief History of the Faculty of Education of the University of Manitoba." Let us all continue to make progress so that we may take our place in society as a profession among professions unashamed and unabashed.

## Sports

CECIL MULDREW, B.Sc.

SEVERAL activities were represented in our summer's sport program.

A baseball game provided an afternoon's exercise. Tereschuck's patter sparked the game, and those out of condition were beginning to wish they weren't. The partakers looked forward to another game which was planned for the afternoon on which the work party was organized. Baseball was sidelined by this more useful expenditure of energy.

A volleyball game, or rather two, were held one mid-morning. On this occasion several of our charming fellow-students turned out to add enjoyment to the game. A camera would have recorded the fact that one of the characters in our class showed considerable skill at tree climbing.

A set of table-tennis was purchased, which proved to be both an attraction

and a distraction. This equipment is being made available to the Faculty throughout the year, compliments summer school 1950.

Resulting from a discussion of the executive a recommendation has been left for next year's executive. It is believed there would be interest in and profit gained from an hour or two of informal talk with one of the University P. T. Staff on organizing, coaching and refereeing games, and running off a Tabloid Meet. Mr. Youmans was sorry he could give us so little assistance and equipment the past summer due to flood damage and disorganization.

### Committees

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# The Social Committee

JANE THOMPSON, B.A.

THE Social Committee of the Faculty's Summer School usually limits its activities to a big bang-up banquet. This year, however, it outdid itself. All credit for this non-surpassed effort goes to the flood. Our Dean was hard hit by said flood, having both his home in St. Vital and his farm in St. Norbert badly damaged. Thus it was that forty-seven split up into two work parties and pitched in to give a bit of help. We picked the hottest day of the year, but nothing daunted, went at hoeing, painting, scrubbing with a great will. This outing did a great deal to boost the school's spirit and helped us to get acquainted early in the course.

Then, of course, we had our annual banquet at the St. Regis Hotel. Eighty students and guests attended to hear Mr. A. D. Thompson, Winnipeg's new Assistant Superintendent of Schools, give his first address to us. Our president, John Clarke, acted as Master of Ceremonies. Two comedy songs were given by Wilf Baldwin and two numbers were sung by a new citizen of Canada.

The Social Committee wishes to thank all those who helped to make the Banquet and Work Party a success. We thought both functions were successes, and hope that they did something to add to the enjoyment of all who attended Summer School.

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The objectives of the association are those of the teacher: the improvement of education from the point of view both of the student and of the instructor; the search for new ideas and the examining of old; the maintaining of high professional skills.

### WHAT HAS THE ASSOCIATION DONE TOWARDS THOSE OBJECTIVES?

Previous issues of the Bulletin have told of some concrete accomplishments: Contributions to the Faculty Library; the furnishing of a common room; the assistance of a colleague in Addis Ababa. These are a few items but they are not the most important part of the work of the association. Fellowship, the exchange of experiences and experiments, sympathy and support; these are paramount.

Scattered over an amazingly wide area, graduates are reunited spiritually in remembering the days of Fort Garry when they turn the pages of their Bulletin. Membership in the association does not merely evoke pleasant memories of the past. It brings about the possibility of accomplishment in the future.

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# Toward Recognition of General Education As a National as Well as Provincial Enterprise

PROFESSOR D. S. WOODS, M.A., A.M., Ph.D.

THE allocation of control over education to provincial authorities by the British North America Act of 1867 was the logical outcome of over two centuries of educational beginnings, during the last half-century of which, immediately preceding Confederation, systems of education were organized in the Maritimes and in Upper and Lower Canada. Canadians had become provincial in their outlook educationally, prior to organization as a united country. The maturing of provincial systems of education was, in part, contemporary with and a phase of the bitter struggle for responsible government which of itself over-emphasized racial and religious differences and in education sectionalism. Methods of school administration and finance had crystallized, and were affected but little by the spirit of compromise under which Confederation was achieved. Consequently, education did not benefit from national resources of either wealth or leadership during the period following 1867 as was true of England following the Elementary Education Act of 1870 where state provision for schooling came to be regarded as an important phase of the evolution of a social democracy. The Canadian attitude had become fixed, smug within its provincial controls, and fearsome of interference. England pursued in a spirit of give and take the search for a more tolerant solution to this new-found national responsibility. It is of importance to note those factors which contributed to the form of school organization and to the means of its financial support in the Eastern provinces of Canada prior to 1867, realizing that these beginnings have determined the areas of management of the public school since confederation.

During the 17th century, missionary

schools for the Indians, and Latin preparatory schools and classical training for the well-to-do French Canadian families were established in the larger centres of population in Quebec and Acadia by Roman Catholic Orders. Some provision was attempted for the peasant farmer or habitant. Education was a function of the church. When approached as a state enterprise under British rule, the Fabrique Act of 1824, expressed the viewpoint of the French Canadian. That Act made the Fabrique or parish government in temporal affairs the local authority in education. The Fabrique was given power to spend up to one-quarter of the parish revenue in elementary schools. Religious supervision and local control were accepted as principles governing school administration and finance. Although this legislation was permissive, 68 Fabrique schools were in operation in the year 1830.

Turn briefly to certain principles of school administration and finance which were importations adjusted to conditions peculiar to pioneer settlements. The Maritimes, the Eastern townships of Quebec, and Upper Canada became meeting grounds of the Anglican, Scotch Presbyterian and New Englander of Puritan Extraction; the church man, the army man and layman. From the Scottish and American settlers Canada inherited the passion of the Calvinist and Puritan for education for all children and the tendency toward state responsibility for education. The need for trained leaders led very early to the organization of grammar, secondary schools, in centres of population; while in frontier, rural settlements the community church and school were regarded as fundamentals in the living of the people. In rural settlements, the volun-



tary method was a prime factor in the administration of schools. Initiative rested with the locality. Community isolation and a sturdy localism were in time to produce a conservative outlook in education and opposition to surrender of authority.

A badly conceived effort had been made to nationalize the schools of Lower Canada in 1801. The act of that year provided for the organization of either parish or township schools. The local authority was to be appointed by and responsible to the provincial authority. Neither the French Canadians nor English settlers of the Eastern Townships would accept this provision for complete central control. The measure failed but fear and suspicion remained.

Following the Act of Union in 1840 and the Municipal Act in 1841, the joint Assembly of Upper and Lower Canada passed the Education Act of 1841. Although unacceptable in several respects, this Act was the forerunner of much that was to follow in Canadian education.

- (1) Provision was made for the organization of separate schools for minorities.
- (2) The municipal council had authority to organize school districts and to levy taxes on assessment, up to a limit, for the erection of school houses. Although the elected parish, township or district board of commissioners or trustees was retained, supervisory and financial authority was conferred upon the municipal council. This was challenged severely in Lower Canada. Taxation on assessment was made permissive in 1849 in Upper Canada and widely accepted by school areas by 1854.

The Education Act of 1841 corresponds in many respects to that passed in England in 1902, fifty-eight years later. It represented a second attempt to create a national system of schools but was not acceptable to either the French Canadian parishioners of Lower Canada nor to the residents of rural areas in Upper Canada. The principle of a national school system was aban-

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done in 1843 when it was agreed that the representatives in the Legislature from each of Upper and Lower Canada should determine school legislation for their respective provinces. Leaders from the Canadas approached Confederation with the conviction that the two major racial and religious elements must resolve their educational problems separately. It is of interest to note that the School Act of 1846, for Quebec, retained the municipal school area for elementary education but placed the local schools under a *separate, elected authority*. In the main, the school area boundaries are coterminous with those of municipal areas.

The first parliament of Nova Scotia passed an Act in 1766 requiring all teachers to be licensed either by a member of the clergy or a Justice of the Peace, and set aside 400 acres of land in each township for the support of schools. The Act of 1780 made provision by way of a public lottery for funds to erect a grammar school and granted £100 for the support of a schoolmaster. The concept of local control did not enter as trustees for land grant funds and grammar schools were appointed by the government. However, the principle of state responsibility for secondary education and for its financial support were embodied in these measures. The government of Upper Canada established 8 grammar school districts in 1807 under principles of control and financial support similar to those of Nova Scotia. The government in either province was at this time more interested in secondary than elementary education, took direct action therefor and assumed almost complete control thereof. Ontario still has many overlapping secondary school districts. Until 1853 the appointed boards of these districts reported to the university senate. The secondary school was a preparatory school and secondary school training in the main socially selective. The growth of the continuous elementary and secondary school was of a later date and represented the demand of the rural area for secondary school training. The continuous school under one board has become characteristic of school organization in the four Western provinces.

The Common School Act of 1811 in Nova Scotia and of 1816 in Upper Canada were, in part at least, a phase of the initial steps in the movement for responsible government. They made provision for the organization of small elementary school districts throughout each province. Responsibility for the initiative and in a large measure for financial support was assigned the local settlement. In either province, the elected trustee board was empowered to hire, fire and certificate teachers, fix salaries, inspect instruction and discipline, prescribe courses of study and text books, determine fees and provide accommodation. The only bonds attaching the local to the central authority were the small grants and annual reports. In due course, when the legislature came to examine this situation it was but natural and proper to create a strong central authority to assume responsibility for several phases of education which could not be successfully managed by so weak a unit of government. This was done through legislation enacted prior to 1850. In general, a provincial department assumed responsibility for general supervision, curricula, text books, the training and certification of teachers, examination and inspection. There remained to the local board, authority over physical provisions, the hiring, firing and salaries of teachers, all of which have been under dispute during recent years.

Originally, local school support depended upon subscription rates. The government gave a small grant intended to assist in the payment of the teacher's salary. Legislation during the period 1830 to 1850 sought a correction by way of taxes levied upon the assessment of real property. This was achieved by the Free School Act of 1865 in Nova Scotia and of 1871 in Ontario. Elementary education was made free but the weight of school support fell upon real property assessment within each school area. In the main, except for secondary education, the administration and cost of new school enterprises have been assumed by the Provincial authority.

Today, the schools of several Canadian provinces labour under two major

handicaps, the products of early beginnings: (1) Inability to benefit directly from the total national income for what is undoubtedly a general social benefit; and, (2) Extreme localism in school financial provisions and leadership which tend of very necessity to maintain cheapness in educational provisions. Both are basic to the inequality of school effort peculiar to several of the provinces of Canada. Truly may it be said that those educational forms which served pioneer conditions and the earlier ambitions and strivings of a sturdy, conservative, rural people have become ill-adapted in course of time to serve the needs of an altered frame of economic conditions and social horizons. The problem of national unity on the issue has been complicated by the conviction, born of early differences in educational philosophy, that equitable compromise could not be achieved at any time.

### **A Higher Standard of Literacy Demand By The People And For All The People**

The Fathers of the American Revolution and of the Constitution of the American Republic, and several of the states of the First Union, stated for democracy a set of principles governing general education and national literacy; a conception broad enough to become an educational compass to the expanding needs of a new social order and expanding civilization. Chap. V., Sec. 2 of the constitution of Massachusetts is as follows:

"Wisdom and knowledge, as well as virtue, diffused generally among the body of the people, being necessary for the preservation of their rights and liberties; and as these depend on spreading the opportunities and advantages of education in the various parts of the country, and among the different orders of the people, it shall be the duty of the legislators and magistrates, in all future periods of the commonwealth, to cherish the interests of literature and the sciences, and all seminaries of them; especially the university at Cambridge, public schools, and grammar schools in the towns."

(Jefferson 1787) "Above all things, I hope the education of the common people will be attended to; convinced that on this good sense we may rely with the most security for the preservation of a due sense of liberty."

(Washington 1796) "In proportion as the structure of government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened."

Steady upward growth of the common school, almost universal acceptance of the secondary school as a phase of general education, and increasing tendency to conceive of the earlier years of the university in similar terms are evidences of the desire to accept these levels of learning as part of the frame-work of general education and therefore essential to the social intelligence of the present era. However, these institutions, and there should be more of them, equipped efficiently to meet the needs of the times, are managed and financed on the basic principles acceptable to the middle of the 19th century. Inequality has been increased enormously through universal acceptance of the principle of secondary education as the right of all and necessary to the well-being of the state, rather than of the socially selected few or any outworn concept of status. This has been accentuated through general acceptance of a curriculum broad enough to encompass many means to intellectual accomplishment and to social understanding and social efficiency.

The Rowell-Sirois Commission Report touched the very heart of the problem when it stated that—

"training for adolescents and adults is given today on a scale hardly anticipated in 1867."

"The framers of the constitution could not foresee the revolutionary economic and social changes that have since taken place, and therefore could have no intention at all concerning them. Whatever powers Confederation was intended to confer on the Dominion, the intention cannot provide answers for any of the questions which agitate



us now for the simple reason that the conditions out of which present difficulties arise were not even remotely considered as possibilities. The intention of the founders cannot, except by chance, provide solutions for problems of which they never dreamed."

This change in position applies to all social services which like education distribute their benefits or handicaps across the entire population of the country. The Royal Commission side-stepped the educational issue, claiming to have no jurisdiction, education being a provincial matter. The Commissioners knew well that many of the problems concerning which they would make recommendations could be settled only through Dominion-Provincial Conference and compromise. Had the Commission argued that Canada is farther removed from agreement on the educational question it would at least have left the door open to that long-time foresight which alone may guide us to a solution.

### **National Contributions To Education**

When Britain undertook to develop secondary education as a national service she did so not only in the interests of the common man but, as well, through the extension of its benefits to all her youth as a means to national unity and economic progress. Social intelligence, selective intelligence for leadership, and national toleration were accepted as fundamentals in school administrative provisions and she went forward from there in the confidence that a school endowed with great freedom for initiative and local adaptation would preserve the national cultures and advance beyond. The nation said to the large counties: Set the plan for discussion and agreement and from the National Exchequer will be provided 54.6 per cent of the total cost by the year 1954 for elementary, secondary and further education.

How far has Canada progressed toward this goal? We have made some progress in that direction. The Agricultural Instruction Act of 1913, the Technical Education Act of 1919, the Youth Training Act of 1937 and the Vocational Training and Co-ordination

Act of 1942 have committed the Dominion Government through its Departments of Agriculture, Labour, Health and Social Welfare to the supervision of and financial assistance to certain phases of secondary education. When first conceived in 1913 and 1919, those learning activities classified under agricultural or technical education were thought of as special rather than as general education. That point of view has altered. Today, industrial art, general shop, home making and all such, are regarded as phases of general education at the secondary school level just as much as are the academic studies. The Co-ordination Act of 1942, outlines possible curricula in these subjects, curricula which, in part, constitutes learning activities within the meaning of general education in the secondary school.

How has this been managed? The Royal Commission on Technical Education, reporting in 1913, gave to Canada almost the identical formula provide by the Fisher Act of 1918 in England — "By Agreement between the Dominion and Provinces." The formula was first introduced in 1895 when an agreement concerning school cadets was reached with Nova Scotia. The large county unit in England submits annually the programme of the county to the National Government Office, which after seeing to it, by means of inspection and county reports, pays the national grant to the county board. Inspection means fact finding and not supervision of instruction. Supervision is a function of the county. The procedure in Canada under The Federal Education Acts has been almost identical with that practised in England for an all-out programme of elementary, secondary and now a scheme for further education. In so far as we have gone in Canada this policy and method of administration has been satisfactory. War emergency education enactments have carried us far afield under the formula, "by agreement." It is unbelievable that we shall be unable in due course to arrive at some similar condition of Dominion-Provincial peace-time confidences, at least within the realms of both secondary and university education.

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# Some Newer Thoughts on the Evaluation of Secondary School Achievement

HARRY L. STEIN, M.A., Ph.D.  
*Associate Professor of Education*

## 1. Some results of fifty years of educational measurement.

THE year 1950 bids fair to become another important milestone in the history of educational measurement, just as the year 1920 marked the end of a period during which the "battle for educational measurement by means of objective tests had been waged, and possibly<sup>(1)</sup>. We would do well, then, to look back over the half-century preceeding 1950 to note stages in the growth of educational measurement and changes that have taken place and to see whether or not there have been any radical changes in thinking in this area. Such a review should help us also to note the presence of trends which may guide us in our efforts to appraise student achievement at the secondary school level more adequately.

In order to see the picture clearly we should recall that back about 1845 Horace Mann called attention to the weakness of the oral examination which was, at that time, the almost universal instrument for assessing pupil progress. He gave evidence that the oral examination lacked validity and reliability, and he advocated its replacement by the written examination. Another American writer, Emerson E. White<sup>(2)</sup> wrote comparing the effectiveness of the oral and written test:

"It (the written test) is more important than the oral test, since it gives all the pupils the same tests and an equal opportunity to meet them; its results are more tangible and reliable, it discloses more accurately the comparative progress of different pupils, information of value to the teacher; it reveals more clearly defects in teaching and study and thus assists in their correction; it emphasizes more distinctly the importance of accu-

acy and fullness in the expression of knowledge; it reveals more fully than the ordinary language exercise the ability of the pupil to write correctly when his attention is directed to the thought or subject matter; it is at least an equal test of the thought-power or intelligence of pupils, since this result, in both methods, is dependent upon the nature of the tests; and lastly, the certainty of the coming written test affords a healthy stimulus to pupils, increasing their attention to instruction, and their efforts to master subjects taught."

While a statement such as White's might not be accepted in its entirety today because of the fact that we cannot expect any single test to perform all the functions indicated in his statement, we must certainly admire his foresight in the promise of things to come.

The usual lag between theory and practice in Education resulted in not much more being done in the scientific evaluation of the learning product until Dr. J. M. Rice introduced the idea of the "comparative test" in 1894. Rice, according to Ayres, was the inventor of the modern achievement test but it fell to Dr. E. L. Thorndike actually to "father" the objective test movement. "Either Thorndike or his students were responsible for most of the early standard tests and scales for measuring achievement."<sup>(3)</sup>

The period 1910 to 1920 saw a flurry of studies designed to show how bad were the existing written essay or subjective tests. The studies by Starch and Elliott<sup>(4)</sup> were probably the most outstanding, although Ruch, in his book published in 1929<sup>(5)</sup> gives a bibliography of some forty articles devoted to this subject. Most of these studies purported to show that both high school and

college teachers were notoriously inefficient in their efforts to grade student achievement, and that much of the inefficiency was due to the nature of the examination. The general effect of this period of criticism of what was now called the **traditional essay type examination** was to make teachers conscious of their shortcomings and to spur them into a feverish period of constructing "new-type" tests. Teachers became "reliability" conscious to such an extent that the term "validity" was almost lost in the rush. Multitudes of short answer tests were developed. Many were standardized, many more were informal. New and ingenious techniques were devised. Publishers did a land-office business in the production of these new instruments. The growth, during this period, of the group intelligence test added a further stimulus to the movement, and makers of achievement tests were quick to borrow the techniques of the makers of intelligence tests.

The next stage in the history of educational measurement was marked by a sincere attempt to relate test development to test functions. The earlier tests were of the general survey variety and were based in the main upon the factual content of the subject matter. They revealed little that was functional in the teaching situation, except that they served to rate children in a fairly definite order of achievement. As the achievement testing movement began to mature, teachers began to think not only in terms of measuring achievement for its own sake, but for such reasons as diagnosis of educational difficulties, guidance, maintenance of standards, pupil selection, motivating learning, guiding teaching, appraising teachers, teaching methods, books, curricula, etc. As a result, tests with new functions appeared, such as diagnostic tests, practice tests, inventory tests, and the like, to parallel new tests in the guidance field such as aptitude, personality, interest, and attitude tests.

The next serious development to take place in the achievement testing field was the application of more elaborate statistical methods in the construction and interpretation of tests. New

methods of measuring reliability by the method of rational equivalence were devised by Kuder<sup>(6)</sup> and Hoyt<sup>(7)</sup>. More attention was given to the problem of item validation, with the result that the extreme groups criterion has become standard practice in determining the discriminating power of an item.

With the increased production of objective tests after 1920 and the consequent "flooding of the market" with instruments of questionable validity in spite of their objectivity, several persons began to question the efficacy of this type of measurement. These persons realized that the "fact accumulation" type of teaching resulting from objective testing was not producing the educational outcomes desired. They proceeded, therefore, to give some attention to the improvement of the essay examination. The newer research purported to show that while objectivity in measurement is desirable it is secondary to the intended function of the measuring instrument<sup>(8)</sup>. The Starch and Elliot studies, while revealing reader inadequacy on the basis of essay tests, did little to yield measures of achievement appraisal other than measurement of skills and factual information<sup>(9)</sup>. Consequently attention is now being given to the construction of a kind of essay examination which will, when marked in accordance with approved procedures, produce a degree of validity not obtainable in the typical teacher-made objective test.

Needless to say, this new kind of essay test bears little resemblance to the traditional "discuss," "outline," "compare and contrast" type of test we knew in the earlier written examinations. In the first place, the number of questions is considerably increased. Instead of five or ten questions for a two-hour paper in a high school subject, the number will be closer to twenty-five or thirty. In the second place, clues to the organization will be given. Thirdly, the response to any question can be given in a sentence or two — at most a short paragraph. Fourthly, no options are permitted, since no one can gauge with any degree of accuracy the relative difficulty of the options. Fifthly, the questions are



phrased so as to require as precisely as possible the specific mental processes operating upon specific subject matter that are embodied in the instructional objectives at which the questions are aimed<sup>(10)</sup>.

A great deal of attention has been given in recent publications to the grading of essay examinations. Rinsland<sup>(11)</sup> asserts that scoring a test should not be confused with grading. Scoring should be done without regard to grading. In other words, in scoring an essay test the marks should be awarded without any bias as to the final grade, and each item should be scored independently without regard for the other items in the paper. This will help to remove the "halo" effect. Coshran and Weidemann<sup>(12)</sup> suggest the following procedure (much condensed).

1. Read over a sampling of papers to get some idea of the answers expected.
2. Score one question throughout all papers.

3. Before scoring papers, read material in text which covers topic and read teaching notes.
4. List points which should be discussed in each answer.
5. Read each answer through once and then check back for details, omissions, etc.
6. Assign specific values for each question or point.

The important points in this list are numbers 2, 4, and 6.

With reference to the construction of the essay examination, Ross<sup>(13)</sup> summarizes the situation as follows:

1. Restrict the use of the essay examination to those functions to which it is best adapted. When it is not clear that the essay type is required for measuring the desired objective, use the objective test.

2. Increase the number of questions asked and reduce the amount of discussion required on each. Always indicate clearly the type of discussion desired.

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To conclude this section of this article it is well to refer to the summary on Essay Testing given by Remmers and Gage<sup>(14)</sup>. They say:

"Essay tests are best to evaluate achievements which cannot be better evaluated by means of short answer tests. These achievements include writing essays, and assimilating, organizing, and evaluating large amounts of subject matter. The construction of valid essay tests requires an appreciation of the large variety of forms in which essay questions can be put . . . Methods of grading essay tests are the percentage-passing, the quality scale, the sorting or rating, and the check-list-point-score methods. The last one is probably the best in that it has been found to yield the highest reliability. It depends for its best results on the rigorous training or self-training of test graders. Further aids to essay grading are grading anonymously, considering single questions at a time, double grading, and giving separate consideration to the mechanical aspects of the pupil's answers."

The conclusion we can draw, then, from this emphasis in the literature of measurement, is that there is a definite trend toward a newer appreciation of the essay type test as a measuring device. As far back as 1937, Walter S. Monroe<sup>(15)</sup> made the prediction that a change would soon come about in this picture. He predicated:

1. A change in emphasis from reliability to validity.
2. An increase in emphasis on direct rather than indirect measurement.
3. A growing respect for essay examinations as instruments for measuring certain outcomes of instruction.

## **2. Distinction between "Measurement" and "Evaluation."**

Measurement in education is a restrictive term implying much the same ideas as in physical measurement. It implies, in the main, the use of pencil

and paper tests to measure predetermined outcomes of instruction. It provides, usually, a quantitative description of whatever is measured and it excludes, for the most part any "relevant data of a subjective and qualitative character, immediately observable."<sup>(16)</sup>

Evaluation, on the other hand, is a broader term in which the measurement aspect is only a part. Other evidences of learning and other methods of assessing the instructional situation and determining pupil progress are used, e.g., examining the pupil's work products, questioning in the classroom, observing behavior in and out of school, etc. Evaluation is often used to refer to the process of assessing the whole child, or the entire educational system. The important thing to note is that evaluation is an attempt to assess outcomes other than, as well as, predetermined ones. In the Province of Manitoba, the accrediting system in use in many of our Collegiate Institutes is founded at least in part on this philosophy of evaluation, wherein the measurement of educational achievement is but accessory to the fact of student evaluation.

Remmers and Gage<sup>(17)</sup> point out that evaluation possesses the two-fold properties of continuity and comprehensiveness. Continuity "implies that the process of evaluation should go on during all the time that the teacher can observe the pupil, not only on special occasions when tests are given or report-card grades are determined. Every recitation, every assignment, every conversation, every behavioral detail that the teacher can observe should be material for the evaluation process and the basis for a record whereby he may accumulate knowledge of the pupil and pass this accumulated record of evaluations and evidence on to the pupil's next teacher. . . . The comprehensiveness of the valuation process refers to its extent over the whole personality of the pupil, rather than his intellectual achievement. Evaluation of a pupil's knowledge is . . . important in guiding him." In short, then, the term "evaluation" goes considerably beyond the term "measurement" in assessing pupil progress.

### 3. New Emphasis on the Measurement of Understanding.

The period of objective measurement put the emphasis upon facts and skills. The value of a test was considered chiefly in the light of reliability. Frank N. Freeman<sup>(18)</sup> has stated that the use of the objective tests may be greatly overdone, and that this is bound to have a harmful effect on study and learning. Objective tests, he says, "have their uses, but the essay tests should be used to a greater extent, and free expression of thought through language should be restored to the dignity it deserves." The new emphasis is on the measurement of understanding. Here there is less reliance upon statistical reliability and objectivity, and more upon (1) defining the behavior to be evaluated (2) selecting test situations (3) developing a record of the behavior that takes place in these situations (4) evaluating the behavior recorded. A close parallel in this connection exists in the area of personality measurement where projective techniques are used more or

less as a reaction against the standard objective instrument of personality measurement.

The Forty-Fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 1, titled *The Measurement of Understanding*<sup>(19)</sup> is devoted entirely to the problem of the measurement of understanding. This article might well be concluded by reviewing the philosophy of this yearbook and noting some important conclusions therefrom.

In the first place, it is noted that it is extremely difficult to define understanding. Rather, we prefer to describe situations in which there is evidence of understanding, and to make broad statements about them. Brownell and Sims<sup>(20)</sup>, in discussing the nature of understanding, assert:

1. A pupil understands when he is able to act, feel, or think intelligently with respect to a situation. In order to accomplish this end the pupil must not only make intelligent adjustments to a situation, he must see the immediate situation in terms of some larger whole. Needless to say, in order to

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adjust intelligently the student must have had the essential relevant experience, the effect of which is to produce in the learner changes which he can carry over to new situations. The measurement of understanding, then, will entail presenting the pupil with these new situations and determining the extent to which he can adjust to them.

2. Understandings vary in degree of definiteness and completeness, and with the difficulty of the concept. At the elementary school level, the concept 2 and 4 must be dealt with in a real social situation to give evidence of understanding. At the secondary school level, an application of Boyles Law will be understood if the student can see its implications in a problem involving gases. At the college or graduate level, understanding of relativity may be demonstrated by the solution of some problem in geophysics, but this represents almost the extreme in difficulty. At each level, it is the problem of the educator to assist to acquire these understandings and then ascertain the extent of understanding by appropriate evaluation techniques.

3. Most understandings should be verbalized, since the ability to express oneself regarding a concept is to some extent a measure of understanding. However, mere verbalization as a result of memorization does not guarantee understanding since it may be relatively devoid of meaning. In typical chemistry examinations students have been known to recite glibly the Law of Multiple Proportions without presenting a shred of evidence that they understood its meaning.

4. Understanding develops through a variety of experience rather than through repetition. The ability to understand and solve complex problems, for example, is a goal achieved only through protracted efforts on the part of both pupils and teachers.

5. A propos of the above statement, successful understanding comes in large part as a result of methods employed by the teacher, e.g., motivation, background, formulation in own words, activity on the part of the pupil, and self-evaluation.

It is easily seen, then, that the measurement of understanding rests, in a large measure upon the goals and the methods of teaching for understanding. If these are clear to both teacher and pupil, understanding may be measured by presenting the pupil with situations which are increasingly dissimilar from the one in which he originally acquired the understanding, and in situations of increasing complexity.

To obtain evidence of understanding, teachers should take every available opportunity of assessment, including (a) normal classroom opportunities; (b) anecdotal and other records; (c) pupil work products (d) written tests of different kinds; (e) pupil interviews; (f) systematic observation of pupil behavior. Some understandings are best assessed informally, and the ordinary school day affords many such opportunities. Of course the reliability of such observations may, at times, be open to question. However, the skillful teacher, the teacher who knows and understands his students, should have little difficulty in verifying his observations from time to time. After all, is not evidence of understanding secured in this way in daily life activities?

Findlay and Scates<sup>(21)</sup> point out that to provide evidence of understanding, the situations presented must contain an element of novelty, but not too much. Consequently, classroom questions and written tests should seek to have pupils apply their knowledge in novel ways. In mathematics, for example, the problem situations should be realistically new, but with a tinge of familiarity. In science, facts should be applied in problem solving. In poetry, the interpretation of new poems is desirable. In language, the sight reading technique is highly appropriate.

The Yearbook is replete with illustrations, in nearly all subject matter fields, of newer methods of measuring understanding. The reader would be well advised to consult it in preparing evaluation techniques for assessing student achievement. Along with Smith and Tyler's volume in the Eight-Year Study<sup>(22)</sup> it bids fair to become a standard reference in the construction of "newer" examinations.

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Caruk, Peter M.....	B.Sc.	Nowosad, Walter.....	B.A.
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Edwards, Henry T.....	B.A.	Saunders, Clifford.....	B.Sc.
Eisler, Gerald A.....	B.S.A.	Sharkey (nee Preboy) Emily.....	B.A.
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Fyles, Elizabeth.....	B.A.	Wiley, Leslie W.....	B.A.
Gray, Robert.....	B.Sc.	Sister Bernadette Cecilia.....	
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Karpiak, Mirosław .....		Sak, Mary .....	
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Elliott, James Alex.....		Peden, William J.....	B.A.
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Dotten, Victor Snelgrove, B.A. (as at December 1, 1949).  
Falardeau, Juliette, B.A. (Ottawa)  
Grainger, John Lorne, B.A.  
Hedley, Robert Lloyd, B.Sc.  
Little, Mary Evelyn, B.A.  
MacLean, Murina, M.A. (as at August 30, 1949)  
Martin, James Cameron, B.A.  
Moan, Mary Philomena, B.A. (Ottawa) (as at November 3, 1949)  
Morden, Charles Clemo, B.Sc.  
Mouritsen, Harold Albert, B.Sc.  
Mozel, Joseph William, B.Sc.  
Ridd, Dwight Nugent, M.A.  
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Stinson, Harold Melville, B.A.  
Sutton, Horace Lloyd, B.Sc.  
Unruh, Benjamin, B.Sc.

## MASTER OF EDUCATION

Baker, Laura Doris, B.A., Manitoba, 1941; B.Ed., Manitoba, 1945. Thesis: "A Study of Underfunctioning Pupils in Grades IV, V and VI in a Winnipeg School."  
Campbell, John Duncan, B.A., Manitoba, 1937; B.Ed., Manitoba, 1948. Comprehensive Examination.  
Ewanchuk, Michael, B.A., Manitoba, 1939; B.Ed., Manitoba, 1941. Thesis: "Evaluation of Results of Standard Achievement Examinations in Grades IX and X, in Manitoba for the years 1947, 1948 and 1949."  
Garland, Aileen, B.A., Toronto, 1934. Thesis: "Certain Material in Canadian History (Published and Unpublished) — Its Suitability of Use in Instruction in the Elementary Grades."  
Green, Richard Collier, B.A., Manitoba, 1930; B.Ed., Manitoba, 1947. Thesis: "The History and Future of School Cadets in the City of Winnipeg."  
Parsey, John Michael, B.A., Manitoba, 1948; B.Ed., Manitoba, 1949. Thesis: "History and Trends in Correspondence School Instruction in Canada."

## DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

✓ Boyce, Eleanor, B.A., St. Xavier, 1931. Thesis: "A Study of the Development of Readers for Elementary Schools in Canada Since Confederation." (As at November 3, 1949).

# The Diploma Year, 1950 - 1951

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Asper, Aubrey Abraham.....	B.Sc. U. of M.	Math, Science, Physical Ed.
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Bend, Annabelle Ellen.....	B.A. U. of M.	History, Maths, Physical Ed.
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Bond, Stephen J. ....	B.A. U. of M.	English, French, Radio
Bouchard, Ralph Lional.....	B.Sc. U. of M.	Visual Aids, Maths, Science.
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Bradell, David, L. D.....	B.Sc. U. of M.	English, French, Physical Ed.
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Hamilton, Joyce L.....	B.A.	Elkhorn, Man.
Koester, Charles H.....	B.A.	Shilo, Man.
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Peden, William J.....	B.A.	716 — 12th Street, Brandon
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Belton, John N.....		Grandview, Man.
Bevan, George .....	B.Sc.	Dauphin, Man.
Bird, Ellen S.....		Dauphin, Man.
Brickman, Stanley V.....		Dauphin, Man.
Booth, Wilfred G.....	B.A.	Dauphin, Man.
Brummitt, Dorothy .....		Dauphin, Man.
Cameron, Vida .....		Dauphin, Man.
Caryk, Edna G.....		Sifton, Man.
Cormack, Don K.....		Grandview, Man.
Crosby, Charlotte V.....		Dauphin, Man.
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Dudar, Michael H.....		Ochre River, Man.
Glaser, Lionel .....	B.A.	Grandview, Man.
Johnson, Gloria A.....	B.A.	Dauphin, Man.
Hamilton, Mary .....		Dauphin, Man.
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